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THE GENESEE FARMER.

SATURDAY, JAN. 31, 1835.

Sowing Clover Seed.

The following is the "P. S." of a letter from one of our subscribers; and we should esteem it a favor if all those who have occasion to write to us, would add to the brief announcement that they "enclose $2,00 for the 5th volume of the Farmer," some statement, be it ever so brief, in relation to their practices on any of the various subjects to which the Farmer is devoted. By so doing, a vast amount of information might be obtained from all sections of the country, which could not but be highly useful.

"On the subject of harrowing in Clover Seed, in the spring, on winter wheat, I have for several years been in the practice of sowing my seed after the ground gets so hard as not to cut up by the tread of the team,—say the fore part of April in common years,—and then put on a common two horse harrow, and go once over. When the Clover is in its first leaf from the seed leaf, I sow on one bushel of plaster to the acre; and I have never lost a crop of Clover since adopting this practice. Last spring I sowed about four bushels of seed; and in consequence of very windy weather, could sow but a little while in the morning. I did not finish until the first week in May, yet at harvest my Clover covered the ground. If sowed and harrowed as above too early, and the season favorable for Clover, it sometimes gets so large before harvesting, that it is in the way of the scythe, or rather it cuts in with the wheat, which is a damage.

"As to the advantage or disadvantage to the wheat crop, I think it almost as beneficial as the first dressing of Indian corn."

☞ The writer of the above is respectfully solicited to become a contributor to the pages of the Farmer.

Wintering Cattle on Straw.

We make another extract from a private letter; and will thank the writer to furnish for the Farmer an account of the manner in which he feeds out his straw, and such other particulars as may be necessary to enable others to follow his example:

"I have just returned from a journey through the western part of this state and the north-western part of Pennsylvania, and had intended to have taken your city in my way on my return, but the thaw compelled me to make a southern route from Erie for the purpose of finding snow. I would most gladly have furnished to many farmers whom I past, a word of advice in regard to their straw, but time would not permit. I am again wintering my stock on straw, and I can confidently assert that I have not seen a herd of cattle or sheep, in my whole ride of 600 miles, which were in better condition than my own, although they have not seen a lock of hay this winter. Many of the farmers whom I passsed on my tour, appeared very economical, as they foddered their cattle in the street, which is a treble saving of yard, and drawing and spreading manure."

Interesting Plants.

We have just received several parcels of seeds in fine order from a friend in Virginia; and we make the following extract from his letter, for the gratification of our horticultural readers. We have no author that mentions *Catalpa salicifolia*. Probably our late minister to Mexico, has been the first to introduce this splendid shrub into the United States; and though we have no prospect that unprotected it can withstand the winters of the Genesee Country, yet we are not without strong hopes of its proving an ornament to our Conservatories and Green Houses.

"*Amsonia latifolia* and *Clematis crispa* are natives. The latter is a very pretty member of that family with very sweet flowers. The *Plantain* has no great merit as to beauty, but its flowers are also very fragrant. *Catalpa salicifolia* is a Mexican shrub, the seed of which, together with the others, I received from a friend in South Carolina; but I fear it is too tender to bear the rigors of your climate. I had a very fine plant of it two or three years ago; but during that excessively cold winter when the mercury sunk ten or twelve degrees below zero, I had the misfortune to lose it. With suitable protection however, it might probably have been saved. It is a very handsome plant, *with leaves*, as its specific name indicates, *like the willow*. Its flowers resemble those of *C. cordifolia*, except that they are of a rose color; and the blossoms continue all summer. It was brought from Mexico some years ago by *Joel R. Poinsett*, our minister there; and given by him to the person from whom I received it."

Double Eschscholtzia Californica.

"We have never seen but one plant [of *Eschscholtzia californica*] affording A DOUBLE FLOWER; and that was cultivated in the garden of M. P. Wilder, Esq. of Dorchester. *It was as double as a rose;* and could it be so propagated as to insure it constantly double, it would be found a great acquisition to the flower garden."

The above extract is from the first number of the (Boston) Horticultural Register, edited by T. G. Fessenden, Esq., and just issued from the office of the New-England Farmer. We have many seedlings of that fine plant; but now learn for the first time that a variety has originated with double flowers. It is a perennial; and we should regret the loss to horticulturists in general, of so remarkable a variety; for though its seeds, like many other double flowers, such as the China Aster and Balsamine, might also produce plants with double flowers, yet we would not willingly trust to these alone. Might not *grafting* into the roots of other seedlings be as successfully practiced as *it* is with the Dahlia? or might not slitting the crown of the root, answer? We would not entirely separate the parts until each should heal or form new roots for its own support. In this district *E. californica* winters well under a slight covering.

Tile for Malt Kilns.

A letter from a subscriber to the Farmer (Samuel M'Afee) at Bertie, U. C. says—"I have lately succeeded in manufacturing tile for malt kilns as good and complete as any brought from England. As I do not know that any have heretofore been manufactured in America, you may please notice it in the Farmer if you think fit. Samples of them may be seen at J. W. Lewis' brewery at the ferry opposite Black Rock, and at my shop, three miles below on the Canada side."

Old Indian Corn and Old Wheat.

It will be recollected that it has been a mooted point between some European writers, whether Indian Corn or maize was a native of America, or of the Eastern Continent. We are not disposed to argue so plain a case, but only to offer an extract from the Edinburgh Philosophical Journal, introduced into that work for the purpose of showing the retentive power of germination in that grain.

"It is worthy of notice that the maize which is found in the graves of the Peruvians, who lived before the arrival of Europeans in that country, is still so fresh that when planted, it grows well and yields seed."

And it will not be irrelevant in this place to present an extract from the American Farmer, (vol. 14,) to show that wheat has been made to vegetate after a lapse of more than twenty centuries.

"There is now growing in France, a patch of wheat, the seed of which was upwards of *two thousand years old.* It was obtained we believe, *directly from one who was an inhabitant of Egypt somewhere about the year* 418 *before Christ*, by some gentleman in France. In other words it was taken from a mummy."

Sheep Husbandry.

We take the following observations on Sheep Husbandry from Silliman's Journal, 1821. It is contained in a "Notice of an excursion among the White Mountains of New-Hampshire, &c. with miscellaneous remarks by JAMES PIERCE."

"From their elevation and latitude, the grazing lands situated in the northern part of New-England, are best adapted for sheep. The great consumption of fodder incident to long winters, so objectionable to the raising of cattle, is more than compensated to the merino sheep proprietor, by an improvement in the quantity and quality of wool, which is much affected by climate. In tropical countries, sheep are *dressed* with hair; in more temperate, the wool is generally short and coarse, but longer and finer in cold regions. In Spain, *two and a half pounds of wool*, is the

average product of their merinos, and of a quality inferior to ours; in the middle States, and valley of the Hudson, the same; on the elevated ground in the western part of Connecticut and Massachusetts—*three*, and in some flocks, *four pounds*. In the southern and middle part of Vermont, from *four* to *four and a half*. In Maine the average is *five*; and in a few choice flocks, *six pounds* the sheep. The best merino wool of Europe, is from the bleak mountains of Saxony. The quantity and quality of wool is also considerably affected by the food, management and selection of flocks—as nature bounti fully provides a dress for all animals according to their wants. Furs are found to be good, and the staple long, in proportion to coldness of climate.

"The northern parts of the United States and Canada, in addition to climate, have for the raising of wool, an important advantage over England, and the south of Europe, in cheapness of soil—much land being required for the support of sheep. The fee simple of good sheep farms in America, can be procured with the amount of the annual rent and taxes of the same quality of ground in England."

Fine Hogs.

The following is from a correspondent in Connecticut:—"Pork was fattened by Mr. Charles Swan, on a small farm in North Stonington—which consisted of twenty-eight in number, twenty-four of which were last spring pigs. The following is the weight, beginning with the largest: 353, 326, 320, 290, 282 273, 268, 265, 260, 259, 250, 248, 243, 241, 238, 236, 235, 227, 224, 222, 221, 220, 214, 214. Weight in the whole, together with four old hogs, 7362."

"Pise Fence."

In the fourth volume of the Farmer an inquiry was made as to the manner of making *Pise Fence*. The following extract from an *Address* to the Hamilton County (Ohio) Agricultural Society, in June, 1831, by Gen. Wm. H. Harrison, affords the desired information:

"In situations where the timber is scarce, and the earth adapted to it, I think it will be very advantageous to resort, both for fencing and building, to the mode of construction called pise or compressed earth. This mode of construction is extensively used in France and Spain; and was introduced by the colonists of the latter country into South America. In some of the provinces of Colombia, there is scarcely to be found a house or fence of any other material. I have seen and particularly examined large churches, and other houses, which claim an origin almost coeval with the first settlement of the country, and exhibiting no evidence of decay. And some fences were pointed out to me which were said to be 200 years old.

The mode of construction is exceedingly simple, and when the material (that is the proper kind of earth) is convenient, it must be remarkably cheap. The earth suited to this kind of building is not pure clay nor sand, but such a compound as is met with almost every where in this section of country. Clay of the strength of that used for bricks will answer, but it is not the best.* When a house or fence is to be built, a foundation of stone must be laid, without mortar, a few inches wider than the width of the proposed wall, and rising about six inches above the surface of the ground. Upon this foundation the superstructure is to be raised. A kind of box, the sides of which may be from two to three feet high, and eight or ten feet long, is to be prepared to receive the earth, the end boards of the same height of the side boards, and of the length that the wall is to be in width. The box is not to be nailed together, but the several parts to remain separate until they are wanted, and then kept together in the manner hereinafter described. To give a proper degree of strength, the side pieces should be formed of three narrow boards, tongued and grooved, and confined on the outside by battons. These sides, when about to be filled with earth, are placed on the stone foundation, and confined by cramps, precisely such as are used for the trunk or forebay of a mill. In other words, you lay upon the stone foundation three joists, about three feet six inches long, three and a half inches broad, and three inches thick, having a mortice in each end ten inches long; these mortices receive the tenons of posts, three by four inches thick, five feet long, and which, of course exceed the height of the box about eighteen inches, the mortices of the joists being ten inches long, and the tenons of the posts not more than two and a half inches, are indented to permit the dimensions of the wall to be reduced as you raise it up. The ends of the posts should be secured with iron to prevent their splitting.

The joists being placed as directed, on the stone foundation; the posts in the mortices of the joists, with the keys to keep them up; the side pieces of the box placed inside the posts, and the end pieces at the two extremities secured from falling out by strong ledges nailed on the side board—the operation of filling in the earth is commenced, some two or three inches thick at a time. Two men then getting inside the box, commence the operation of pounding with wooden beaters formed of some hard wood. The head of the beater is not a plain surface like the head of a common mall, but not unlike the soldering iron of a tinman; or perhaps more like the fist of a man, the knuckles representing the lower extremity. Another beater having two square sides, to be used in the corners of the box, will also be found necessary. In Colombia, the earth beater that I saw was in the shape of one of our canoe paddles, excepting that the extreme point of the blade, with which the beating is effected, is an inch and a half thick. But the most material circumstance to be attended to—that indeed upon which the whole success of the operation depends—is the degree of moisture in the earth which is used. It is to be neither wet nor dry earth, but moist earth. If it is wet, the pounding will have no effect, the mass rising in one place as it is beaten down in another. If dry, there will be no cohesion. But used in a moist state, the small quantity of water is driven out by the operation, and the natural cohesion of the earth takes place to a degree that is scarcely credible to one that has not witnessed it.

In our climate, exposed as it would be to severe frosts after heavy rains, a pise wall would certainly require a roof of some kind. In Colombia, the highest walls, those for convents, churches, and court-yards, are covered with tiles. In the country, they often content themselves with putting brush-wood, grass, and even unpounded earth over it, which are removed as they decay or are washed off. I have, however, seen a vast deal of this kind of fencing without any covering at all. Upon seeing an old wall, clothed with moss, of upwards of a mile in length, near the town of Serenza, without any covering, I inquired its age, and was informed by a gentleman that it could not be less than one hundred and fifty years old, that he had recollected it for upwards of forty years, and that it had not changed its appearance in the least in that time. At Serenza there is never any frost, but the rain falls, for six months in the year, in such torrents that it is scarcely conceivable to those who have never been in the torrid zone.

I will not pretend to form an accurate estimate of the price of pise walls either for houses or fences. There can, however, be no doubt, that for the former they would be found much cheaper than any other material, and for fencing, than any other with the exception of wood, and taking into view the difference in durability, much cheaper than any fence in which that article is used, with the exception of hedges. If we compare the operation of constructing a pise wall with that of brick or stone, it will be found greatly in favor of the former. To make bricks the earth must be dug, well worked up, taken to some distance, moulded, again lifted, spread on the drying yard, a second time lifted, set in a kiln, and then burned, at no inconsiderable expense. After all this labor you have only one of the materials with which to commence your wall. While all that is required to make pise is to take the earth to the place where it is wanted, and pound it. The labor of which I take to be no greater than what is necessary to prepare the mortar for bricks. And really and truly for the purpose to which the two materials can be applied, I had quite as lieve have the pise as the brick. When well made I have no doubt it is more lasting, and as it receives whitewash or any coloring with great facility, and retains it for a long time, both houses and fences of this material may be rendered exceedingly picturesque and ornamental.

Many people will, no doubt, be incredulous as to the great durability of pise, believing it to be impossible that simple earth, without the aid of any other material, would acquire so great a degree of hardness as to resist the action of the atmosphere for centuries, as pise houses and fences are known to have done in France as well as South America. It is, however, the homogenousness of the mass which causes its great degree of strength and solidity. An evidence of its possessing those qualities is to be found in its resisting the shocks of earthquakes better than any other material. I have the authority of Mr. Restrepo, late Secretary of the Interior of Colombia, that in his native province of Antioquia, which is most subject to earthquakes, and where pise houses of this description are considered much safer than any other. There are, I think, few places in the western country where pise may not be advantageously used. But throughout the prairie country, where the soil is not too sandy, its introduction could not fail to be highly advantageous. I have said that it requires a stone foundation. It would be certainly much better to have one—but for fencing I think it may be dispensed with, provided the water is kept from it by proper drains, and the top secured with a sufficient roof of wood, tile, or thatch. I omitted to mention, in its proper place, that the posts which confine the sides of the box, in which the earth is rammed, are not confined at the top with wooden caps, but with ropes, for the convenience of expanding or contracting the wall at pleasure, and that two round sticks of wood are used, to keep the sides of the box from pressing in during the operation of pounding."

* A larger portion of sand is desirable; the clay which is mixed with gravel is perhaps the best. The rich earth of our native forests, contains too much vegetable matter, but when this has been exhausted by cultivation, the action of the sun, and the washing of the rains, almost any of our uplands or Ohio bottoms will answer.

Geology in Schools.

From a number of the *Scientific Tracts*, published semi-monthly at Boston, we copy the following "reasons why Geology should be universally introduced as a branch of common education:"

1. It is nearly allied to geography. The connexion and distinct provinces of these two sciences, have already been pointed out in the introductory remarks of this number. From that view it is believed, many will be ready to acknowledge that the claims of this science to becoming a subject of common school instruction, are equally strong with those of geography, and in some points superior.

2. It is an interesting science. It opens to our view a new world, and presents us with numerous objects of beauty and of interest, before unnoticed. The most barren ledges, the common-

est rocks and walls by the wayside, destitute of anything to admire or notice, show to groups of young explorers, that these have not merited the long neglect they have suffered; but they contain much that is rich and beautiful, not merely when arranged on the shelves and cases of a cabinet, but when placed on the mantelpiece of the parlor or drawing-room, and furnishing instruction and delight to the most elevated minds.

3. It is among the grandest of sciences. It leads us to view, with increased admiration, the towering mountain and awful precipice,and induces and enables us to examine with greater ardor and more exalted delight, those features of the earth,which never fail to excite ideas of sublimity even in the rudest mind. We learn from it, that amid the lofty aspect, the terrific grandeur, and the wild confusion of the Alps and Andes, there is order and regularity, which evince the skill of a wise and all powerful architect. Arrangement amidst apparent disorder, a vast storehouse of riches overhung by forms of terror, objects of the highest beauty grouped beneath the awfully sublime, afford to the passing geologist a moral as well as an intellectual banquet.

4. It gives new interest and increased utility to our journeys and our walks. A person, with the slightest knowledge of geology, never passes from one country or place to another, without finding much to admire, and much to increase his store of knowledge. If he find no thriving village, no field covered with the fruits of the farmer's industry, no fertile tract groaning under its load of stately forest trees, or smiling beneath its dress of beautiful verdure, he still finds, in the barren plain or the broken ledge, much that is beautiful, rich and instructive.

5. It furnishes a healthful and instructive amusement to the young. Wherever it has been introduced into schools, the pupils have taken more or less of their pastime in examining and collecting specimens of minerals within their reach. A geological excursion is uniformly preferred by them to their ordinary sports, too often calculated to dissipate their minds, and unfit them for patient and successful application, when they return to their school-rooms or their books.

6. It teaches children to be observing. A thousand objects, before unnoticed, press upon their view; their imagination and taste are awakened, and called into vigorous and healthful exercise, in discriminating the aspect of objects. Their minds, once put upon the search to discover what is beautiful and rich in the mineral kingdom, are led to examine other parts of this wide creation; and wherever they go, or whatever they see, they find something to admire, and to convey to their minds entertainment and instruction.

7. It leads to useful discoveries. Wherever the science of geology has been introduced into schools, or to the attention of other young people, valuable discoveries have been made to enrich the treasure of science, or to furnish new sources of industry and of wealth, both to individuals and the nation. If once introduced into all our schools, the whole country would be put under the most minute and rigid examination, and compelled to yield up its treasures, now buried beneath the surface of the earth. In New-England, alone, from one to two hundred thousand young, but ardent and efficient surveyors, might be induced to afford their gratuitous and cheerful services, to explore our resources in the mineral kingdom; and while they amused and instructed themselves, they would make important accessions to the public treasures of science and of wealth.

8. As the adoption of geology as a branch of common education, uniformly leads to a thorough examination of the natural features of the country, it would prepare the way for obtaining maps of all the towns where it should be introduced. Considering the trifling expense at which lithographic prints of town maps can be procured, and the important vehicles they would be to convey a minute and accurate knowledge of the character and resources of our country to the minds of its inhabitants, few subjects better deserve the immediate attention of every town.

9. No science is more practical. It acquaints farmers with the nature of their soils, and the best methods of improving them; civil engineers with the materials for constructing roads, canals, railways, wharves, dams, &c., and the proper method of combining them; artists with the origin and nature of paints, and other substances in common use; and the miner when and how to extend his researches, pointing him to a reward for his labors, and guarding him against abortive attempts.

Agriculture, internal improvements, manufactures, and the various useful arts, occupy, at present, so large a place in public attention, as to render every method which can be adopted to advance them worthy of public and private patronage.

10. The introduction of geology into schools, would tend to promote moral improvement among the young. Perhaps there are not two more unfortunate circumstances attending our system of popular education, than that the exercises of children in the school-room are irksome, and those for recreation are dissipating to the mind. If school-houses could be rendered places of pleasant resort, and amusement sources of useful instruction, the great work of reform in cultivating intellectual and moral taste would be fairly begun. The more innocent and useful amusements are scattered around the young, the less time and disposition they will have to pursue those which are pernicious or useless. No subject, perhaps, is better fitted to answer the double purpose of amusement and instruction, than geology. And few are better fitted to show the power and wisdom of Him, "who weighed the mountains in scales, and the hills in a balance."

11. It is easily acquired. The features of this science are not only striking and grand, but they are few and simple, and exactly fitted to entertain and expand the juvenile mind. By the aid of specimens, with appropriate descriptions, its general principles are more easily and readily understood, than those of any other science which is taught. Nothing is more easy than to introduce it into every district and private school in the country, and to acquaint every child with the names, ingredients and uses of the rocks he daily observes in his walks, and with the prominent geological features of our country.

12. It is necessary. Without it, gazetteers and journals of travels cannot be understood. In some places, a knowledge of the great geological features of the earth is as common and familiar, as of the continents and oceans; and consequently, without this knowledge, a person is liable to find himself ignorant of the most common and familiar topics of conversation, in the society he will frequently meet. To be destitute of a branch of science so important and accessible, is to be unprovided with a great source of mental occupation and entertainment for early life; and in the case of teachers, the want of it is the want of a powerful and happy means of influencing the youthful mind.

If it should be asked how this science can be most readily introduced into schools, it is answered, from numerous experiments, that fifty or a hundred labelled specimens, with some small manual to describe them, explaining their ingredients, uses, &c., are sufficient to make a beginning, which, if once made, seldom, if ever, fails to be extended to a general knowledge of the subject.

From the New England Farmer.

Making Butter late in the Fall.

Such is the general mode of living in this section of the country, that Butter is an indispensable article in every family; nor will a small quantity suffice for the various purposes to which it is applied in the culinary art. Hence there is no production of the farm on which so sure calculations upon a ready and profitable market can be made. It is important to the farmer to make the most of his dairy. But there is a certain part of the year in which the process of making butter is so difficult and laborious, that the complaint has acquired the authority of an axiom; "That it costs more than it comes to."

I refer to the season of the year when grass feed is failing or gone, the quantity of milk diminished, and the cream is so long in churning, that the butter, if it come at all, is worth little or nothing. It sometimes happens that much time and labor is entirely lost,—no butter can be obtained, and the cream is made worse.

Having thought much on the subject, and experienced all the uncertain results of which others complain, I have been led to the conclusion, which experiments have confirmed, that there is a certain degree of heat, could it be ascertained, to which the cream might be raised, which would insure a quick process in the formation and separation of the butter from the whey or milk, at the same time preserve the quality of the butter, and prevent that frothiness and softness which is the never failing result of long continued churning.

To ascertain the degree of heat necessary to insure a short process, we heated the cream on the hearth to about 72 or 73 degrees—this, with heat in the churn, which was scalded with boiling water, gave to the cream about 75 heat. In six or seven trials, during the months of November and December, the longest process in churning was twenty minutes, the shortest, ten. The butter has been uniformly sweet and hard, and in nothing inferior to that made in October, except in color. The last churning was on the 30th December last. I attended to the whole process carefully. The cream, when first put into the churn, was 80 I waited till the heat had fallen to 75, and immediately began the operation.—The butter was formed and ready to take out of the churn in just ten minutes. By the way, I use, and have for several years, a rocking churn, and think it the best, all things taken into view, that has ever been in use in New England.

I do not pretend to have made sufficient experiments to establish any general and uniformly operating principle, but the experiments I have made, and the results to which they have led, may serve as hints to others to try similar experiments, by which some general principle may be established to render the process of churning in the winter as short and certain as in summer. This is certainly a desideratum in geoponics, and worthy of the attention of the poor man who keeps but one cow, and the rich who keeps a dozen. It deeply interests those who perform the operation of churning, as well as those who share in the benefits. Let every farmer purchase a thermometer,—he will save in one year enough in labor and butter to pay for it, besides the gratification of having always good butter, and a plenty of it, in the winter, provided he has the materials to make it of. W. Allen.

North Andover, Jan. 1, 1835.

N. B. Since writing the above, one of my neighbors, hearing of my successful experiments, called on me to borrow my thermometer to make a similar experiment,—he informed me that their two last trials to make butter, after churning 24 hours, had been unsuccessful. They accordingly prepared the cream as above directed, heating to 75,—the butter came in five minutes,—was hard and good for winter butter.

Butter made in Cold Weather.

Mr. T. Whitmarsh, of Brookline, Mass., has favored us with a beautiful sample of butter, made on one of the coldest days of the present winter. It appears as fresh and yellow as if it had been manufactured in June from Durham Shorthorns fed upon honeysuckles, and Madam Ceres herself had officiated as Dairy-maid. Mr. W. assures us, that the cows producing his exquisite butter have had no food but hay, and attributes its superiority to keeping the milk and cream in a warm cellar, heated by a furnace, which, at the same time, keeps every room in the house at as high a temperature as can be wished for, in the coldest weather of the most inclement season.—*N. E. Farmer.*

When men of infamy to grandeur soar,
They light a torch to show their shame the more.

COMMUNICATIONS.

Gama Grass.

BY T. S. P.

I believe no account has been published of any experiment in the culture of Gama Grass, made north of the James river. A great degree of interest has been excited in regard to its merits; and as the plant has been found growing indigenously in Pennsylvania, and even as far north as Connecticut, the inference has been naturally drawn that it may be brought into successful cultivation elsewhere than in the Southern States. Though my experience is by no means extensive, yet as far as it goes I am encouraged to persevere; and I shall therefore make no apology for introducing the subject to public notice.

For a year or two past I have had the Gama Grass growing in my garden in various situations, from the richest soil to that of only tolerable fertility. I have discovered but little difference in the luxuriance of its growth under these different circumstances—a result which may be attributed to the number and strength of the roots, which penetrate deeply into the substratum, and draw nourishment from sources not readily accessible to less vigorous plants. From this disposition in the roots, it is reasonable to conclude, that the subsoil should be rather of a porous nature, the more readily to admit their entrance. Mine on the contrary is of a firm adhesive texture; and I am therefore induced to doubt whether the results of my experience were as favorable as they might have been in a different soil.

I find the grass to be rather tardy in putting forth its shoots in the spring. It is nearly the first of the 5th month (May) before it exhibits any signs of vegetation; but from that time it progresses with great rapidity. On the 4th of June I cut some which was about three feet high, although it stood close to some very thrifty trees, which abstracted almost all sustenance from every thing else within their influence. After cutting, I observed its growth attentively for some time, and found that the blades grew an inch and a half per day; so that in the course of another month the grass had nearly attained its full size again. Having spared some seed stalks, I refrained from cutting it a second time until they had matured their seeds.

In a communication published a few months ago in the Farmer's Register, by Agricola, (the signature adopted by the gentleman who first brought the Gama Grass into notice) he mentions that with him the growth of the blades after cutting was precisely the same which I have stated it to be here. But his observations being made in a much more southern climate, where the spring is considerably earlier, and the autumn continues to a much later period, the *number* of his cuttings was greater than we have any reason to expect can be profitably realized in a higher latitude. I am of opinion that four times is quite as often as the grass can be cut to advantage above tide water in Virginia; and in New York it might not exceed three. With this drawback however, if there be any reliance upon the calculations which have been made relative to the product, the cultivation of the Gama Grass must be regarded as an object of importance by farmers generally. I am well aware that calculations founded on a limited knowledge are extremely fallacious; still, after the many which have been made, and in one or two instances fully justified by the result, they are doubtless deserving of some attention. Not to be singular, I am willing to follow the example set by others, and venture upon one in this communication; in which whatever of error may exist, it will, I am persuaded, be on the safe side.

I had several plants in a favorable situation that I reserved for seed, which were only subjected to a single cutting, made after the seeds were gathered. They stood close to each other, and were surrounded by vegetables usually cultivated in a garden. They were moreover *young* plants, being only in the second year of their growth. On the 18th September, they produced each seven pounds of green grass, which when perfectly cured and weighed a few days ago, yielded three pounds of hay. Now at two feet of distance each way, there will be ten thousand plants to an acre of ground. Admitting therefore that only one crop could be obtained during a season, here is a product of thirty thousand pounds of hay to a single acre. It may be objected that if the acre of land was fully occupied, the growth would be less luxuriant. But I am satisfied that each healthy plant would have attained the same size; inasmuch as those to which I have previously referred as growing in the vicinity of the trees, gave after two cuttings the same aggregate product.* In regard to the quality of the hay, it possesses a delightful fragrance, very much like that of corn blades; and was greedily eaten by horses. I think however the hay cannot be highly nutritious, *when the grass is frequently cut;* for in that case the blades are so succulent as to lose too much of their weight in drying.

The propagation of the Gama Grass is effected either by seeds or offsets. There is some difficulty in getting the seed to germinate in consequence of the rigid husk which envelopes the kernel. They should be planted in autumn and thus subjected to the action of a winter's frost; or some artificial method be used to soften the husk or disengage the grain from its covering. It is stated by the editor of the Baltimore Farmer, that if the seed be steeped for a day or two, in a mixture of plaster of Paris and fourth proof spirit in such proportions as to make a liquid of the consistence of white wash, they will readily sprout. The vessel containing the mixture should be placed near a fire, to keep moderately warm. When one has only a few seeds, a more convenient way would be to remove the husk entirely, which may be readily done with a penknife, by carefully separating the two portions where they are attached to each other at the base of the seed. Previous to the operation it might be proper to soak the seed a short time in warm water, to make the husk yield more readily to the knife. When the removal is effected, there is no farther impediment to germination, which will take place as soon as in wheat or corn.

After being so fortunate as to rear a few plants, the best mode of increasing them is by offsets. A well grown plant of a year old may be divided into twenty or thirty, and sometimes more; pains being taken to have a root to every offset. They bear transplanting as well as lettuce or cabbage. It will be necessary to keep the young plants clean of weeds and grass during the first season, and the commencement of the next. If the grass should be flourishing, it will need but little more culture, and will increase in strength and luxuriance for several years. Two years ago I began with *four plants*, after leaving a few to bear seed and to give me some promise as to the size they would attain. Being seedlings and of a rather weakly growth, I only obtained thirty six from them at that time; but last spring I divided them again into six or eight hundred.

Should any farmer be desirous of testing the merits of this Grass in the climate of New York, he may apply to the Editor of the Genesee Farmer for a few seeds, to whom I have sent a small number for distribution. T. S. P.

Beaverdam, Va., 1 mo. 10, 1835.

* The same product when *dried*, but it was considerably more in the *green* state; a greater loss having been sustained by making the first cutting so early.

Rules for Making Rail Fence.

BY M. A.

Simple as the business of making rail fence is considered, it is pretty evident but few farmers have any system or rules by which they govern themselves in this indispensable part of farming. Although the following rules may be well known to most well bred farmers, yet they may be found useful to others who have not been taught in all the arts and mysteries of agriculture.

I. How to know when you have drawn a sufficient number of rails for a given distance of fence:—If the fence is to be seven rails high, (which is sufficient if the rails are of good size,) and the rails are twelve feet long, place them in piles of ten each, the piles touching each other in a continuous line.

II. Place, in range, stakes or poles sufficiently often to clearly designate the line—prepare a pole seven or eight feet long, well sharpened at one end; and if much used, the end ought to be pointed with iron; at about eighteen inches from the pointed end, fasten a rod at right angles with the pole, and extending thence from three feet, two, four, or six inches, according as the fence is exposed to winds. Three feet two inches makes a handsome fence. Stick down this pole in range with the poles designating the line, and the end of the rod will show the place for the corner. Place then for a foundation a good sized flat stone, and you are ready to commence operations.

III. The bottom rail should be sound and straight—place the largest end forward on the stone, and the other end crossing the preceding rail at the end of the rod or the ranging pole, so that the corners on each side be in exact line.

IV. Let the five following rails be placed the smallest end forward, and notched, if necessary to make them lie steadily.

V. Let the top rail be heavy and well notched, the largest end placed forward, and your fence is done.

The object of having the largest end of the bottom rail placed forward, is to have less space between the rails for pigs and geese; and having the top rail the largest end forward, leaves the fence level and of equal hight throughout.

There is no sight more pleasing to a Genesee farmer than a well made rail fence. M. A.

On Draught.--No. III.

BY QUERCUS.

In farther pursuing our inquiries relative to the *application* of animal power, the *modus operandi*, or the manner of attaching the power to the weight, forms an important consideration. We have seen that the structure of the animal, his muscular power, speed and bottom, and the quality and degree of resistance, all have more or less influence upon the *effect* produced; and we shall now find that the mode of harnessing a horse and attaching him to his load, also has an influence upon his productive labor.

If we could always use our draught horses upon rail-ways, where the resistance is so slight, and its quality exactly what it should be, it would be a matter of little importance, in ordinary cases, how we connected them with their loads; but while we have to encounter every variety of resistance, up hill and down, over rough roads and smooth, it is important to avail ourselves of every circumstance, however trifling, which may increase our products without injury to our animals, or expense to ourselves.

In ancient times the harnessing a horse was a very simple matter. A strap around the neck, or a band around the girth, with a connecting rope or leather, was all that was thought necessary; and even in more modern times, every nation has a mode peculiar to itself, though all depend upon one and the same principle for effect.

But whatever may be our preferences, or however many our expedients to decorate our animals, or modify their labor, the effect they produce, will always depend in some measure upon the arrangement of the traces.

The angle of inclination, or in other words, the direction of the traces from the shoulder to the load, has been a topic of much discussion. There are but three modes of directing the traces; horizontally from the shoulder to the load; an upward inclination from the same point; and a downward inclination. These have all had their advocates; but so far as I can judge, the *force of traction* is not altered in either case. If the trace inclines upward from the shoulder, then a portion of the animal's weight is borne by the trace, and of course communicated to the carriage; and if the trace is inclined downward, the effect is, that the horse lifts, as it were, a part of the load; while in both cases, the force of traction is the same as that exerted upon a horizontal trace. In the first case, the *effect* is increased by the *weight* of the animal; in the latter, by his muscular strength, or capability of sustaining weight. The advantage or disadvantage, then, of either of these modes of application must depend upon something else than mere *force of traction*.

But *there is*, nevertheless, advantages to be gained in the use of these several modes. It is evident, from the very construction of different horses, that their *capabilities* are essentially different, though their force of traction may be the same. One may be a small, muscular, nervous animal, exerting an average force of traction of 125 lbs.; another, with large muscular legs, is perhaps calculated to sustain a great weight; while a third may possess an unwieldy bulk of flesh and bone, which of itself is a load, and yet neither of the latter horses be able to exert a greater force of traction than the former. In the first case, comparing one animal with the other, nothing would be gained by deviating the traces from a horizontal direction. In the second, an evident advantage would be gained by inclining the traces downward, for then the effect would be increased by putting a part of the load *upon* the horse, thereby leaving less weight to be operated upon by his force of traction. And in the last case, a corresponding advantage would be obtained by inclining the traces upward, so as to take the benefit of the animal's weight in addition to his strength. Hence it is evident, that so far as the animal is concerned, the inclination of the traces ought to depend upon his *particular capability*, and not upon any general rule.

But, independent of the animal, there is another consideration which should influence the inclination of the traces. In the above cases, I have supposed the weight to be moved upon a smooth surface; but it is evident, where the road is rough and the resistance constantly varying, a great advantage may be gained by enabling the horse to lift a part of his load over the obstacles; which will be effected by inclining the traces downward, let the animal's capabilities be what they may. On most of our roads, however, there is a constant variation from smooth to rough, from ascent to descent; and it will, therefore, be desirable for every man to fix upon that inclination which on the whole will best suit his circumstances; for it would be impossible to change the direction of the trace at every change of surface. Hence we find how much more effect wheel horses are enabled to produce upon our common roads, than leaders; for the latter can never apply their strength except in a horizontal direction; while the former exert the same force of traction, and at the same time increase the effect, by their nearness to the load, and relieving the weight. Hence, too, it is evident, that upon ordinary roads, the mode of harnessing horses one before another, as in our stage teams, is not the most efficacious mode of applying their powers. The plan adopted by the New-Jersey and Pennsylvania teamsters, of harnessing four horses abreast, and directly to the carriage, is doubtless the most efficient, if not the most convenient.

The common use of the gig, or dray cart, is another exemplification of this principle. The weight thrown upon the shafts, is the same thing as weight applied to the traces by a downward inclination; and it is well known to practical men, that most horses will carry the same load easier in this way, if correctly divided, than where the whole depends upon the animal's force of traction.

The fitting of the trace to the collar is another point worthy of remark. The structure of the horse, however, determines this matter almost wholly, and generally, in this country, it is judiciously applied. The connecting point between the collar and the trace, should be about two thirds of the distance from the top of the collar to its lowest extremity, for there the collar bone is smallest, and the most muscle is presented to sustain the pressure. The old fashioned New-England mode of applying a connected trace around the breast, and sustained by a strap over the neck, was exceedingly irksome to the horse, as the whole strain passed directly over the joint of the collar bone, and thereby nearly paralized the operation of that joint.

In general, then, where the road is smooth and the gait slow, the traces should be as nearly horizontal as possible; unless where an extraordinary exertion is required, and then the traces should be a little inclined downward, so as to put a small part of the weight upon the horse. When the road is rough, and the gait also slow, the traces should be applied still lower down, so as to give the horse the greatest power over obstacles. But where great velocity is required, without much attending weight, the nearer the traces can be brought to horizontal the better, for then the horse is enabled to exert his force of traction without any counteracting influence.

In my next number, I shall proceed to consider, in part, the second branch of this subject, to wit, the *vehicles to be moved*, in connection with the *channels of conveyance*, but with especial reference to Canals and Canal boats. QUERCUS.

Mr. Halsey's Report Reviewed.

NUMBER THREE.

In the year 1819, an act was passed by the Legislature of this State, as Mr. Halsey and his associates in committee have noticed in detail, to improve Agriculture and Domestic Manufactures in the state, appropriating ten thousand dollars annually, to be distributed among the several counties, for the use of Agricultural Societies. The act was hailed, almost with enthusiasm, by a large portion, and it is believed by a large majority of the well informed citizens of this state. The sentiment was reciprocated in almost every circle, that *then* was commencing a new and illustrious era in the history of Agriculture and Manufactures in the state of New York. It was expected that, by the operations of the act passed at that time, farmers were to be redeemed from the vassalage to which they had long been doomed, and restored to the rank of citizens. Rarely has an act been passed by the Legislature, exciting greater and more general rejoicing, than did the act of 1819, which was passed for the improvement of Agriculture, the Arts, and Manufactures.

The citizens of nearly all the counties were prompt in availing themselves of the privileges provided by this act. Agricultural Societies were soon formed, in most of the counties. Indeed, the system of policy then introduced under auspices the most cheering, quickly came into spirited and lively operation.

In these brief remarks, I have given, as it is presumed all will admit, no other than a faithful history of facts, accompanying the commencement of this splendid Institution. I charge myself to be like faithful in the prosecution of its history; and yet, in order to do justice to the subject, I may find it necessary to bring facts to light which the committee have not seen fit to disclose. I am not unaware, that my duty as a faithful historian, may compel me, contrary to the feelings of my mind, to advert to political strifes, which have had their day and passed into partial oblivion. This I shall regret; yet it is believed the importance of the subject, and the necessity of having it well understood, will be deemed an acceptable apology. At the same time, I feel too

much of individual independence and patriotism, to admit for a moment, that party politics, used for party purposes, and put in hostile array against the general interest of the community, are entitled to the least indulgence. Having made these introductory remarks, I hasten to resume the main subject of inquiry.

It is my object to furnish, with reference to the remarks of Mr. Halsey and his associates, a faithful history of the Agricultural Institutions, which had their origin in this state, under the act of 1819. It has been remarked, that Agricultural Societies quickly came into operation, in nearly all the counties. Their subsequent progress, the embarrassments under which they labored, in consequence of opposing agencies, their ultimate dissolution, and the bearing which they are supposed to have had on the Agriculture of this state, and the general interest of its citizens, are now to become subjects of inquiry.

The Agricultural Societies were organised, in all cases so far as the writer knows, by electing to their offices such gentlemen as were justly reputed practical farmers. This was a requisite of the law. No doubt it was a mistaken policy, as may be shown more satisfactorily, in subsequent remarks. The Societies thus organized, proceeded to action. Days were appointed for Anniversary Exhibitions, and notices given out, that premiums would be awarded to successful competition. At those feasts of ingathering, (for so might they fitly be called) there rarely failed to be present vast assemblages of our most industrious and enterprising citizens. *There* were to be seen the best animals of the country, together with specimens of the choicest products of our soil. *There* were exhibited new and improved implements of husbandry. *There* too, in improved articles of Domestic Manufactures, and the Mechanic Arts, might be witnessed the most satisfactory demonstrations of the fact, that untutored citizens, acting under the influence of stimulating agencies, are capable of making astonishing improvements, in their respective arts. Can it be true, as the committee seem to suppose, that the time thus occupied by unsuspecting citizens, in attending the Agricultural Exhibitions, was not only lost, but perverted to the subversion of good morals?

Citizens of other occupations deem it a privilege to hold meetings, as well for the individual improvement of members, as the general interest which they represent. They practice accordingly. Lawyers meet frequently at the courts, where they have opportunities of improvement, by witnessing the practice of each other, and by a free interchange of sentiment, in regard to forms of practice and points of law. Ministers meet in presbyteries, synods, general assemblies; in conferences, associations, general associations, &c. Merchants have their chambers of commerce, at which they meet for general consultation and mutual improvement. The medical faculty too have meetings, with a view to individual improvement, and the better advancement of the healing art. It has become fashionable, in modern times, for teachers to hold meetings, with intent to promote primarily their own individual improvement, and ultimately the general interest of letters. Against the meetings thus enumerated, not a syllable of complaint has to my knowledge ever been raised. It is believed, no alarm has ever been taken, as if these meetings involved a prodigal waste of time, and threatened to subvert public morals. Whence then the necessity or justice of denying to farmers privileges, thus universally conceded to all other orders of men?

The committee seem to suppose that if farmers hold meetings, especially if they meet for Agricultural Exhibitions, results the most disastrous must be looked for. Such, clearly, is the import of what they say on the subject. They say, (speaking of the effects produced by the late Agricultural Institutions,) "Nor do the members of the committee suppose, that the actual amount of benefit to the Agricultural population can be, with the least propriety, put in comparison with the evils which have resulted from the expense and loss of time to those farmers who attended the meetings of the Societies, and the exhibitions necessary to execute the plan."

From the passage thus quoted, it appears, that the committee consider the late Agricultural Societies as having been the instruments of much greater evil than good, and that they consider them as having been particularly mischievous, in calling away farmers from their business to attend the meetings, and thus occasioning loss of time. I ask them, are seasons of recreation and respite from labor to be altogether forbidden to farmers? Do the committee maintain, that the Agricultural class of the community should be compelled, like negroes placed under taskmasters, to labor incessantly? Have the gentlemen forgotten, or did they never learn the old adage contained in ancient spelling books, "All work and no play makes Jack a dull boy?"

But the committee say again, "Besides, the committee are of the opinion that much *moral* evil has resulted to the community from those meetings of the Societies, more particularly for exhibitions. It cannot be supposed, that where an excitement has been produced, and large congregations of people brought together on such occasions, all will conduct properly and correctly. Many vicious propensities which, if their possessors were not induced to attend those meetings, would at least lay dormant, are brought into action, and produce consequences which must be deplored by every good citizen."

I ask again, What do the committee mean by all this? It may be true, that there are no circumstances under which depraved moral agents can assemble together, out of which there may not spring temptations to the indulgence of bad passions. If there can be meetings, affording no such temptations, where shall we look for them so readily, as to the meetings of farmers, convened for the purpose of exhibiting to each other the products of their industry and skill, reciprocating good wishes, interchanging their opinions in regard to questions of the theory and practice of their art, and thus combining their influence to meliorate the condition of society, by accelerating the march of Agricultural improvement? In the contemplation of such assemblages, is not the mind irresistibly struck with a conviction of their intrinsic purity and excellence? If meetings for Agricultural Exhibitions are of dangerous moral tendency, what meeting then may farmers, in the judgment of the committee, attend, without danger of demoralization? Will the answer be, Religious meetings on the Sabbath. Undoubtedly, it is the duty of farmers, and all other citizens, in ordinary cases, to attend meetings on that sacred day. Yet it is not certain that "all will conduct properly and correctly" *there*. Religious meetings, like all others, are susceptible of abuse, and sometimes, by fanaticism and other causes, they are rendered extensively demoralising. I reiterate the question, What meeting *may* farmers attend, with assurance of impunity as regards moral character?

The committee object to meetings for Agricultural Exhibitions, chiefly, for three reasons, viz: because they occasion loss of time, are demoralizing in their tendency, and are the means of producing preternatural excitement. Happily for myself, I am a stranger to the feelings of those gentlemen, during the six months next preceding the late election. No doubt, they must have been sorely distressed, in witnessing the portentious signs of the times. There were, preparatory to the election, a multitude of meetings; and they were all pregnant with the evils dreaded so much by the committee. Many of these meetings were denominated conventions. There were Town conventions, County conventions, State conventions, and United States conventions; besides meetings of less honorable distinction innumerable. Who can calculate the expense of time that was occasioned by so many meetings? If any meetings for the transaction of lawful business, are demoralizing in their tendency, who can doubt that these political meetings were the means of opening the floodgates of moral pollution, and letting in upon the land a torrent of iniquity? If preternatural excitements are incompatible with a sound and healthy condition of society, and are the means of inflicting moral pestilence, how dark then are the prospects of the country! How pestilential the moral atmosphere which we breathe! It is known that, in the late political contest, no pains were spared, by either of the conflicting parties, to produce the greatest possible excitement.

But we are not to suppose that the gentlemen who composed the committee, participated, at all, in practices which they deemed so unwarrantable, and so dangerous to public morals. We are not to suppose, that they were accessary, in any manner or form, to the perpetration of crimes, so sure, in their judgment, to inflict on the community moral pestilence and death. It must not be supposed that they attended any of the political meetings, nor that they were content, when they saw others attend them. On the contrary it must be supposed, that their pious minds, watchful of public morals, and awake to a sense of impending danger, were filled with anguish at the sight of such enormities in wickedness. Surely, they *could* not, and *did* not forbear lifting up their warning voice against such outbreakings of iniquity, exclaiming in the language of horror, *Procul, O, procul, Profani!*

SENEX.

December, 1834.

Sour Soils.

MR. TUCKER—Are not Mr. Ruffin's ideas about sour soil* more fanciful than true? I believe that we may analyze our soils as strictly as we please, and find nothing in them assimilating to oxalic acid. That this acid exists in sorrel, and many other vegetables, I conceive is no proof that

*Gen. Far., vol. 4, p. 385.

it exists in the earth. Remove the sorrel and other vegetables, and then analyze the soil in which they grew, and if any oxalic acid is found, then we may conclude that it exists in the soil; but if not, I think we should conclude that it is derived from the atmosphere like most other peculiarities found in vegetables,—such as potash, sugar, lime, gypsum, aroma, tannin, &c.

It appears to me that plants derive these, by the peculiar formation of their pores, in the same way that a crab apple stock is made to produce the sweet pippin by grafting, but I may be mistaken and really wish for information. DUBIO.

Brief Hints.--No. II.

BY RHO.

External Appearances--Domestic Comfort, &c.

Phrenologists and physiognomists pretend to decypher human character by the bumps on the cranium or the cut of the nose. Without questioning the science or impugning their skill, it may be safely asserted that the aspect of a farm or dwelling is at least equally conclusive evidence of the habits of the occupants.

The intelligent traveler needs scarcely to be told the characteristics of those who dwell along his route. The houses, dooryards, outhouses, fences, cattle—each and all proclaiming, in language not to be mistaken, the condition of their possessors. Where, ever have you found a bleak, filthy or tasteless dwelling, inhabited by a contented or happy family? The man who has not consideration enough to render the situation of his family pleasant in these respects, cannot be a very agreeable companion for those of his own age, or a fitting instructor for children.

It should be a maxim with every man, *to render his homestead as pleasant as possible to those whose time must necessarily be chiefly spent within its limits.* Thus much is surely due to those whom he is bound in law or honor to "love, cherish and protect." The wife of his bosom—the children of his affections—shall their wants and their happiness be slighted in the all-engrossing pursuit of wealth—*wealth, which should be coveted only for its agency in promoting their welfare?*

It is written, that he makes a losing bargain who gains even a world by the loss of his soul. The remark is applicable through all the relations of life. How valueless is that wealth which you are toiling to accumulate, if it brings not with it comfort and happiness for you and yours—if the children who may inherit it are not educated with such habits and feelings as may qualify them to employ it usefully, instead of squandering it in modes destructive to themselves and pernicious to society!

Rely upon it that every hour and every dollar *judiciously* spent in promoting domestic happiness will generally repay the expenditure with countless interest—not *wholly* in the increase of *pecuniary* wealth, (although *that* is a common result,) but in the production of blessings which mere wealth cannot create nor poverty destroy—in contentment and cheerfulness—in knowledge, industry and virtue—qualifications, without which, the gold you may bequeath them will serve but as the whitewash on the sepulchre, rendering the inward rottenness more disgusting! RHO.

Destruction of Ticks.

Having noticed an article in your last number recommending tobacco for the destruction of ticks upon sheep, with which I agree in all except the mode of applying it—instead of wetting them with a sponge before they are sheared, I think it would be more advisable to have a tub or some other large vessel standing by the shearers, and to have the sheep dipped into it after their fleeces have been taken off, in which case the ticks could in no possibility escape destruction. I have seen this method practised upon a flock of about one hundred sheep, among which there could not be one found that had not fifty ticks upon it, and some of them two or three hundred; but now there cannot this number be found upon the whole flock.

The stalks of tobacco, which are precisely as good as the leaves, can be bought at about one cent per pound, of which fifteen pounds are sufficient to serve one hundred sheep.—*N. Y. Far.*

EGGS OF THE CODFISH.—It is estimated that the female carries in her ovary more than 9,000,000 of eggs. No wonder, therefore, that 20,000 fishermen do not cause this fish to disappear from the deep.—*Ib.*

List of Payments

For the Farmer from Jan. 22, to Jan. 29, 1835.

For vol. 5.

William Janes.	John H. Williams.
John L. Eastman.	Thomas Williams.
William P. Rollo.	Stephen Leggett.
Lewis & Ely.	Aaron Riley.
J. E. Kimball.	Myrick Bradley.
Luther Couch.	Richard Tallcott.
William Goodell.	L. Chandler Ball.
Kapin Andrews, 4&5.	Joseph Savage.
Wm. P. Johnson.	Chauncey Stone.
Joseph Clary.	Lyman Balcom.
M. D. Parker.	Dyar Foote.
Ray G. Waite.	Cyrus Kinne.
John Dunlap.	

For vol. 4.

Leman Herrick.	James Harris.
C. Hyde.	Joseph Tomkinson.
Henry Mosher.	John W. Strong.
Jacob P. Lusk.	John Gifford.

Last half of vol. 4.

Marvin Palmer. | Gideon Lapham.
Charles Godfrey.

For first half of vol. 5.

James Christie. | G. S. Lauterman.

PRICES CURRENT.

ARTICLES.	PER	Jan. 31. ROCHESTER.	Jan. 24. NEW-YORK.
Ashes—Pot....	100lbs.	$3,40.....	$5,05 a 5,25
—— Pearl..	.....	4,00.....	6,90 a 7,00
Beeswax, yellow	lb.	0,18 a 0,20	21 a 22
Candles, mould	.....	0,12 a 0,00	10. a 13
—— dipped.	.....	0,11½a0,00	9 a 11
Cloverseed.....	.....	6½.... ...	9 .a.10
Flax, American.	.....	.....	8..a.09
Flax seed, clean	tierce	9,00a10,00	16,00a16,50
Flour, Western.	barrel	4,75.....	5,50a 5,62
Grain, Wheat..	bushel	0,75a.0,00	1,06 a1,07
—— Rye....	.....	0,50.....	70.a..75
—— Oats...	.....	0,28..a..30	46..a..48
—— Corn...	.....	0,50.....	73..a..75
—— Barley..	....	0,47..a..50	66..a..70
Hemp, American	ton	.....	100 a 120
Hops, assort.	lb.	0,15.....	12..a..13
Plaster Paris...	ton	6,50 a 0,00	2,00 a2,25
Beef, Mess....	barrel	7,50 a.9,00	9,25 a 9,75
—— Prime....	.....	5,50 a 0,00	6,00 a 6,25
Pork, Mess....	.....	15,00a00,00	13,50a14,00
—— Prime....	.....	10,00.....	9,50a10,00
—— in the hog.	100lbs.	3,50 a 4,50	5,00.....
Tallow.....	.....	9,00 a 10,00	7,50 a 8,25
Hay.....	ton	9,00 a 11,00	9,75a11,20
Apples.....	bushel	75..a.100	.....

Boiled Flax Seed.

This is the season of the year when cattle, horses, and sheep, should occasionally have a little flax seed, boiled in water, and mixed with their food. If they are fed principally on dry food, the flax seed, as well as the liquid from it, is the more necessary —*N. Y. Farmer.*

BUCKWHEAT FOR FOWLS.—This grain, given to fowls, tends to make them lay. Rye, on the contrary, is supposed to have a different effect. —*Ib.*

Clover Seed,

OF both the large and small varieties.—ALSO, a quantity of White Field Peas, (from Canada,) and large white Marrowfat Peas, of superior quality, just received and for sale at the Rochester Seed Store. REYNOLDS & BATEHAM.
Rochester, Jan. 31, 1835. jan 31

New-England Seed Store.

AT the *Agricutural and Horticultural Warehouse* connected with the New-England Farmer, the subscriber continues the Seed Establishment, and now offers to dealers, Gardeners, and the public generally, an unrivalled collection of

GARDEN, GRASS, & FLOWER SEEDS,

comprising unusually fine varieties and of undoubted quality and vitality—being raised under the particular direction and expressly for the establishment.

Garden Seeds in boxes assorted for dealers from 10 to 100 dollars each. Also in pounds, halves and quarters, at very moderate prices.

Boxes of Seeds containing a good assortment for private gardens, at $3 each.

300 to 400 choice varieties of FLOWER SEEDS in 6 cent papers—20 papers for $1,00.

Grass Seeds, at the lowest market prices, Wholesale and Retail.

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Greece, *Monroe* co. N. Y. Sept. 13, 1834.

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The Snow.

BY CHARLES SWAIN.

The silvery snow!—the silvery snow!—
Like a glory it falls on the fields below;
And the trees with their diamond branches appear
Like the fairy growth of some magical sphere;
While soft as music, and wild and white,
It glitters and floats in pale moonlight,
And spangles the river and fount as they flow:
Oh! who has not loved the white beautiful snow?

The silvery snow, and the crinkling frost—
How merry we go when the earth seems lost;
Like spirits that rise from the dust of Time,
To live in a purer and holier clime!—
A new creation without a stain—
Lovely as Heaven's own pure domain!
But, ah! like the many fair hopes of our years,
It glitters awhile—and then melts into tears!

Unfading Beauty.

From a small volume of Poems, by Thos. Carew, Esq. London, 1640.

He that loves a rosy cheek,
Or a coral lip admires,
Or from star-like eyes doth seek
Fuel to maintain his fires;
As old Time makes these decay,
So his flames must waste away.

But a smooth and stedfast mind,
Gentle thoughts and calm desires,
Hearts with equal love combin'd,
Kindle never dying fires;
Where these are not, I despise
Lovely cheeks, or lips, or eyes.

Instruction of Common School TEACHERS.

We have read with much pleasure, the report of a committee of the Regents of the University of this State, on the "Education of Common School Teachers," presented to the Regents at their first annual meeting in this city, on the 8th inst., under an order of that body, founded on a law of the last legislature, providing for the application of a part of the Literature Fund to the education of teachers of common schools, under the direction of the Regents of the University. The committee consisted of Messrs. JOHN A. DIX, JESSE BUEL and JOHN L. GRAHAM. Their report, is an elaborate and eloquent treatise on the subject referred to the committee, and it will be read with lively interest by all who regard the improvement of our system of common school instruction as a means of elevating the character of our citizens and preserving the purity of our free institutions.

The committee propose the establishment of a department of instruction for common school teachers in the existing academies; and, in order that the department, to be organized, "should be put on such a footing as to insure efficiency to the extent of the means at the disposal of the Regents," they recommend the selection of one Academy in each senate district. An opinion is expressed that "eight might be maintained, without putting at hazard the great object of rendering them equal to the preparation of well instructed and competent teachers."

With a view to such a selection, the report enters at large upon the discussion of the following subjects:

1st. On what principle the funds applicable to the establishment or organization of the departments shall be apportioned to the Academies which may be selected for the purpose.

2d. On what principle, and to what extent, the annual excess of the Literature Fund applicable to the support of the departments, shall be apportioned to the Academies in which they may be established.

3d. What shall be the organization of the department—

I. As to the course (or subjects) of study.

II. As to the duration of the course.

III. As to the necessary books and apparatus.

4th. What evidence of qualification shall be given to the individuals who may be trained in the departments.

On the important topics embraced in the 3d and 4th subdivisions, the remarks of the committee are full of discrimination, good sense and practical utility, and the very best results may be anticipated from their circulation and adoption among the schools generally.

We could wish for their general perusal by every parent and trustee of a common school in the state.

The Regents, at the recent meeting of the board, have adopted the report entire; and we learn that the following Academies have been selected for the establishment therein of a Teacher's department, viz:

1st district,—	Eras mus Hall,	Kings	county.
2d "	Montgomery,	Orange	"
3d "	Kinderhook,	Columbia	"
4th "	St. Lawrence,	St Lawrence	"
5th "	Fairfield,	Herkimer	"
6th "	Oxford,	Chenango	"
7th "	Canandaigua,	Ontario	"
8th "	Middlebury,	Genesee	"

These selections have been made, either on account of the superior value of the philosophical and chemical apparatus and libraries, possessed by the Academies to which preference has been given, or from the belief that, owing to their superior endowments or peculiar location, the course of education in them will be likely to be least expensive to the student.

For the prosecution of their design, the Regents have resolved to appropriate the sum of $400 annually, for the support of teachers in those academies in which departments shall be organized; and it is intended also, to supply them with a suitable philosophical and chemical apparatus, libraries, &c. &c.

We hope soon to lay some extracts from this important paper before our readers.—*Albany Arg.*

Health of Children.

Early rising, is a habit of high importance to fix in children; and in forming it, there is far greater facility than in other cases. There is a natural propensity in children, generally, to early rising, which needs only to be gratified and encouraged. They usually retire to bed some hours before their parents; and at daylight, or at least at sunrise, are generally awake, and anxious to rise. Many of them are actually bred up with difficulty to the habit of taking morning naps! which, when once formed, generally prevail through life. Let the father deny himself so far as to retire early and become an early riser also. His health, enjoyments, and usefulness, he may depend upon it, will be perceptibly benefitted. Long lived persons have been found, after an extensive inquiry, to resemble each other only in this important practice. And this may be connected with another preventive of disease—active employment. The morning is the season for activity; the frame is invigorated by repose, is prepared for exertion, and motion gives pleasure. The pure atmosphere, so much more bracing than at other hours, so much sweeter and exhilerating than the air of a confined chamber, has been prepared to be breathed; and like all of nature's medicines, it is superior to any which science can produce. Early rising and early exercise, might more properly be called food than medicine, as they are designed for daily use, and to protect us from disease, rather than to remove it. Every thing except mere sloth, invites us, nay, requires of us, to train up our children to use them. The morning is the most favorable season for exercising the frame, as well as for making useful impressions in the mind and heart, of important facts, moral principles, or religious feelings; and whoever tries to conduct the education of his child independently of this practice, will lose some of the most favorable opportunities.—*Dwight's Father's Book.*

WORDLY EVILS.—"There are but two bad things, in the world," says Hannah Moore, "sin and bile."

Good Manners.

There are a good many little offences committed against manners, which people are hardly aware of at the time. It is not polite, for instance, to teaze a person to do what he has once declined, and it is equally impolite to refuse a request or an invitation in order to be urged, and accept afterwards. Comply at once; if your friend be not sincere you will punish him, as he deserves to be. It is not polite, when asked what part of a dish you will have, to say "any part, it is quite indifferent to me;" it is hard enough to carve for one's friends without choosing for them. It is not polite to entertain our visiters with our own family history, and the events of our own household. It is not polite for married ladies to talk in presence of gentlemen, of the difficulties they have in procuring domestics, and what things they are when procured. It is not polite to put food upon the plate of your guest without asking his leave, nor press him to eat more than he wants.

Government of Children.

Never chastise in a state of wrath: no parent in such a state of mind can be in a condition nicely to adjust the kind and degree of punishment to the offence; it is like administering medicine scalding hot; which rather burns than cures. God waited till the cool of the evening before he came down to arraign, try, and punish our first parents, after their fall. Patiently examine the offence before you punish it. Accurately discriminate between sins of presumption and sins of ignorance or inadvertence. Accidents should be reproved, but not punished, unless they involve wilful disobedience.—*J. A. James.*

Rail-Roads and Canals.

	Miles of Canal.	*Rail-Road.*
Maine,	20	
New Hampshire,	34	
Massachusetts,	78	116
Rhode Island,		46
Connecticut,	27	
New-York,	500	76
New-Jersey,	149	106
Pennsylvania,	788	322
Delaware,	13	16
Maryland,	354	194
Virginia,	60	249
North Carolina,	24	
South Carolina,	51	135
Georgia,	28	
Alabama,	16	62
Mississippi,		63
Louisiana,	14	5
Ohio,	375	
Total in U. States,	2540	1698

State Banks and their Capitals.

Massachusetts,	66	$20,420,000
Maine,	18	2,050,000
New-Hampshire,	18	1,791,670
Vermont,	10	532,625
Rhode Island,	47	6,118,397
Connecticut,	13	4,485,177
New-York,	37	20,083,353
New-Jersey,	18	2,017,000
Pennsylvania,	33	14,609,963
Delaware,	4	830,000
Maryland,	13	6,250,495
District of Columbia,	9	3,875,794
Virginia,	4	5,571,109
North Carolina,	3	3,195,000
South Carolina,	5	4,631,000
Georgia,	9	4,203,029
Louisiana,	4	5,665,980
Alabama,	2	645,503
Mississippi,	1	950,600
Tennessee,	1	737,817
Ohio,	11	1,454,386

Wit loses its respect with the good, when seen in company with malice; and to smile at the jest which plants a thorn in another's breast, is to become a principal in the business.—*Sheri.*